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# Algorithms associated with arithmetic, geometric and harmonic means and integrable systems

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## Abstract

Gauss' algorithm for arithmetic–geometric mean (AGM) can be regarded as a discrete-time integrable dynamical system having an elliptic theta function solution and a conserved quantity. In this paper we consider algorithms associated with arithmetic, geometric and harmonic means from a viewpoint of integrable systems. First, a max-plus limit and its inverse limit of the AGM algorithm are discussed. These mean operations are shown to be connected to each other by the max-plus limit. Secondly, continuous-time dynamical systems associated with the arithmetic–harmonic mean (AHM) algorithm are found. Thirdly, it is shown that the AHM algorithm in indefinite case has a chaotic dynamics and is a generator of numbers which obey the Cauchy distribution. Finally, an extension of the AHM algorithm to the space of positive-definite symmetric matrices is considered. © 2001 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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## 1. Introduction

In this decade a closed relationship between certain classes of algorithms and integrable systems is widely understood. Here the integrable systems are dynamical systems which can be explicitly solved, in principle, by the quadrature or some other integration techniques (cf. [13]). Such algorithms and integrable systems are classified into the following four cases.

- (i) Algorithms whose one step is just time-one evolution of some integrable system, for example, the QR algorithm [24].

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- (ii) Algorithms which can be regarded as a time discretization in a linear level of some integrable gradient system, for example, the power method [20].
- (iii) Algorithms which can be regarded as a time discretization in a tau-function level of some soliton equation, for example, the qd algorithm [19].
- (iv) Integrable gradient systems of Lax type which solving matrix eigenvalue problems, for example, the Brockett equation [7].

In this paper a new class of algorithms having an intimate relationship to integrable systems is considered. The recurrence formulae of algorithms can be regarded as discrete-time integrable systems having explicit solutions and conserved quantities. Each algorithm is defined by a pair of mean operations and generates sequences converging to a common limit in quadratic order. The keyword to connect such algorithms to integrable systems is the existence of additional formulae. In the subsequent part of this section Gauss' *arithmetic–geometric mean algorithm* (cf. [6,8]) is reviewed as a typical example.

Let  $a_0$  and  $b_0$  be given positive numbers such that  $a_0 > b_0 > 0$ . Let us consider the iteration of the arithmetic mean and the geometric mean operations

$$a_{n+1} = \frac{a_n + b_n}{2}, \quad b_{n+1} = \sqrt{a_n b_n}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (1)$$

which generates sequences  $\{a_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{b_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ . Then it can be easily checked that  $b_n < b_{n+1} < \dots < a_{n+1} < a_n$ . The sequences converge to a common limit, say,  $M \equiv M(a_0, b_0)$  named the *arithmetic–geometric mean (AGM)* of  $a_0$  and  $b_0$ . The complete elliptic integral of the first kind

$$I(a_0, b_0) \equiv \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{a_0^2 \cos^2 \phi + b_0^2 \sin^2 \phi}}$$

appears, for example, in computation of period of the simple pendulum. There is an important formula  $I(a_0, b_0) = \pi/(2M)$ , where  $M$  is the AGM. The proof is given by successively applying the Landen transformation to the integral to show  $I(a_0, b_0) = I(a_1, b_1) = \dots = I(M, M)$ . The AGM algorithm is known as an excellent algorithm for computing the complete elliptic integral of the first kind (cf. [1, p. 720]).

For the elliptic theta-function

$$\Theta(z; \tau) \equiv \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \exp(2\pi i k z + \pi i k^2 \tau), \quad z, \tau \in \mathbb{C}, \quad \text{Im } \tau > 0, \quad i \equiv \sqrt{-1},$$

we set  $\Theta_3(\tau) \equiv \Theta(0; \tau)$  and  $\Theta_4(\tau) \equiv \Theta(\frac{1}{2}; \tau)$ . Then we can prove an additional formula

$$\Theta_3(2\tau)^2 = \frac{\Theta_3(\tau)^2 + \Theta_4(\tau)^2}{2}, \quad \Theta_4(2\tau)^2 = \Theta_3(\tau)\Theta_4(\tau) \quad (2)$$

(cf. [25]). Let  $\tau$  be pure imaginary, and then  $q \equiv \exp(i\pi\tau)$  becomes a real number satisfying  $0 < q < 1$  and both  $\Theta_3(\tau)$  and  $\Theta_4(\tau)$  take a real value. Hence, the  $n$ th terms of the AGM algorithm

(1) are expressed by

$$a_n = M\Theta_3(2^n\tau)^2, \quad b_n = M\Theta_4(2^n\tau)^2, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (3)$$

Here the pure imaginary number  $\tau$  is uniquely determined by  $a_0$  and  $b_0$ .

Viewing the above fact from integrable systems, the AGM algorithm is a discrete-time integrable system having the elliptic theta-function solution and the conserved quantity  $I(a_n, b_n)$ . Indeed, Deift–Tomei–Li–Previato pointed out that, by changing the discrete variable  $n$  with a continuous variable  $t$ ,  $(a(t), b(t)) = (M\Theta_3(2^t\tau)^2, M\Theta_4(2^t\tau)^2)$  is an integrable Hamiltonian flow over  $\{(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | a > b > 0\}$ , where  $H(a, b) \equiv I(a, b)$  is a Hamiltonian (cf. [9]). Theta function (or, quasi-periodic) solutions of soliton equations have been known so far (cf. [26]). Additional formulae with respect to the parameter  $z$  appear there. It is to be noted that a *time evolution* with respect to the other parameter  $\tau$  emerges in the AGM algorithm.

Substituting  $c_n \equiv 1/a_n$  and  $d_n \equiv 1/b_n$  into the AGM algorithm (1) we obtain

$$c_{n+1} = \frac{2c_n d_n}{c_n + d_n}, \quad d_{n+1} = \sqrt{c_n d_n}. \quad (4)$$

The first of (4) is the harmonic mean of the positive numbers  $c_n$  and  $d_n$ . Hence the sequences generated by the *harmonic–geometric mean algorithm* (4) starting from  $c_0, d_0$  converge to the common limit  $2I(1/c_0, 1/d_0)/\pi$  quadratically. Moreover, a matrix AGM algorithm was introduced in [23] for computing the exponential and logarithm of a given matrix.

In the following sections we discuss the AGM algorithm (1) and the arithmetic–harmonic mean (AHM) algorithm from a viewpoint of integrable systems.

In Section 2, we introduce the max-plus limit of the AGM algorithm. Under this limit the addition changes to the max operation and the multiplication goes to the addition, respectively. Hence, the AGM algorithm turns to the max-arithmetic mean algorithm. On the other hand, by taking the inverse max-plus limit of the geometric mean, we present a hierarchy of the log–geometric means.

In Section 3, it is proved that sequences defined by the AHM algorithm converge in a quadratic order to the geometric mean  $N \equiv \sqrt{\alpha_0 \beta_0}$  of the positive initial value  $\alpha_0 > 0, \beta_0 > 0$ . The AHM algorithm of positive case is also regarded as a discrete-time integrable system admitting a hyperbolic function solution and a conserved quantity. Two types of continuous-time integrable systems associated with the AHM algorithm are found. One is an integrable Hamiltonian system of Deift–Tomei–Li–Previato type. The other is an integrable system derived from a matrix additional formula of coth by taking a continuous limit.

The AHM algorithm for the indefinite initial value  $\alpha_0 > 0, \beta_0 < 0$  is discussed in Section 4. The recurrence formula has a trigonometric function solution and a conserved quantity. However, the dynamical system behaves chaotic. We prove that the AHM algorithm of indefinite case is conjugate to a chaotic dynamical system named the Bernoulli shift and is a solvable chaotic system. The corresponding invariant measure and a positive Lyapunov exponent are found explicitly.

Finally in Section 5, we consider three types of geodesics on the space of  $m \times m$  real positive-definite symmetric matrices  $\text{PD}(m)$  and their relationship to arithmetic, geometric and harmonic means of positive-definite matrices. Here  $\text{PD}(m)$  is known as a Riemannian manifold being endowed with an information geometric structure. A matrix extension of the AHM algorithm to  $\text{PD}(m)$  is presented. Sequences of positive-definite matrices are shown to converge to a common limit quadratically.

## 2. Max-plus limit of the AGM algorithm

The *ultra-discrete limit*, so called, is a discretization process starting from a continuous-time dynamical system to a time evolution on a discrete set  $S$  through a suitable time discretization of the dynamical system (cf. [27]). The discrete-time system and the time evolution on  $S$  is related by the following mapping. For positive numbers  $a$  and  $b$  we associate  $\exp(A/\varepsilon)$  and  $\exp(B/\varepsilon)$ , respectively, where  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then the mapping  $\Rightarrow$  is defined by taking a “ $\varepsilon$  loglimit”

$$\begin{aligned} a + b &\Rightarrow \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0+} \varepsilon \log \left( \exp \frac{A}{\varepsilon} + \exp \frac{B}{\varepsilon} \right) = \max(A, B), \\ ab &\Rightarrow \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0+} \varepsilon \log \left( \exp \frac{A}{\varepsilon} \exp \frac{B}{\varepsilon} \right) = A + B, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

namely, the addition  $a + b$  changes to  $\max(A, B)$  and the multiplication  $ab$  goes to the addition  $A + B$ .

Recently, various soliton cellular-automata are found from soliton equations in terms of the ultra-discrete limit (cf. [28]). *Inverse ultra-discrete limit* is a process for finding underlying continuous-time dynamical systems from cellular automata. Hence the ultra-discrete limit and its inverse cannot be taken twice. While we can take the mapping (5) and its inverse many times only for discrete-time dynamical systems. This is the reason why we name (5) the *max-plus limit*. Remark that the mapping (5) is fundamental in the theory of discrete event systems [5].

Now we consider the max-plus limit of the AGM algorithm (1). Replacing  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  in (1) with  $\exp(A_n/\varepsilon)$  and  $\exp(B_n/\varepsilon)$ , respectively, we obtain through the max-plus limit

$$A_{n+1} = \max(A_n, B_n), \quad B_{n+1} = \frac{A_n + B_n}{2}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (6)$$

This recurrence formula generates new sequences  $\{A_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{B_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ . It follows from  $a_n > b_n > 0$  that  $A_n > B_n$ . The  $n$ th term is then expressed by

$$A_n = A_0, \quad B_n = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) A_0 + \frac{1}{2^n} B_0, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Since  $A_{n+1} - B_{n+1} = (A_n - B_n)/2$ , the sequence  $\{B_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  converges to the limit  $A_0 = \max(A_0, B_0)$  in linear order. We note that the max-plus limit of the sequence of geometric means  $\{b_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  is the geometric progression  $\{B_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ . The new algorithm (6) should be called the *max-arithmetic mean algorithm*. The max operation  $\max(A_n, B_n)$  gives a rather rough mean of  $A_n$  and  $B_n$ . Combining (1) with (6) we see

**Proposition 1.** *The geometric mean, the arithmetic mean and the max mean operations are related by the max-plus limit (5) as follows,*

$$\text{geometric mean} \Rightarrow \text{arithmetic mean} \Rightarrow \text{max mean}.$$

Next, we calculate the *inverse max-plus limit* of the AGM algorithm (1). Setting  $a_n \equiv \varepsilon \log a'_n$  and  $b_n \equiv \varepsilon \log b'_n$  with  $a'_n > b'_n > 1$  and taking a limit  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0+$ , we derive

$$a'_{n+1} = \sqrt{a'_n b'_n}, \quad b'_{n+1} = \exp \sqrt{\log a'_n \log b'_n}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (7)$$

from (1). Conversely, we can recover (1) from (7) by using (5). The sequences  $\{a'_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{b'_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  converge quadratically. Let us call the second of (7) as the *log-geometric mean* of the positive numbers  $a'_n$  and  $b'_n$ .

To take the inverse max-plus limit of (7) again we introduce  $a''_n$  and  $b''_n$  by  $a'_n \equiv \varepsilon \log a''_n$  and  $b'_n \equiv \varepsilon \log b''_n$  providing that  $a''_n > b''_n > e$ . Then the recurrence formulae

$$\begin{aligned} a''_{n+1} &= \exp \sqrt{\log a''_n \log b''_n}, \\ b''_{n+1} &= \exp(\exp \sqrt{\log(\log a''_n) \log(\log b''_n)}), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

are obtained. We name the second operation of (8) the *double log-geometric mean* of  $a''_n$  and  $b''_n$ . It follows from (1), (7), (8) that

**Proposition 2.** *The geometric mean, the log-geometric mean and the double log-geometric mean operations are related by the max-plus limit (5) as follows:*

$$\cdots \Rightarrow \text{double log-geometric mean} \Rightarrow \text{log-geometric mean} \Rightarrow \text{geometric mean} \Rightarrow \cdots.$$

There is an inequality among these means. Let  $a > b > e$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} a = \max(a, b) &> \frac{a+b}{2} \\ &> \sqrt{ab} \\ &> \exp \sqrt{\log a \log b} \\ &> \exp(\exp \sqrt{\log(\log a) \log(\log b)}) \\ &\vdots \\ &> \min(a, b) = b. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Here some new mean operations and algorithms are presented by the max-plus limit and its inverse starting from the AGM algorithm (1).

### 3. The AHM algorithm

In this section we discuss an iteration of the arithmetic mean and the harmonic mean operations of given two positive numbers  $\alpha_0$  and  $\beta_0$  such that  $\alpha_0 > \beta_0 > 0$ . The recurrence formulae

$$\alpha_{n+1} = \frac{\alpha_n + \beta_n}{2}, \quad \beta_{n+1} = \frac{2\alpha_n\beta_n}{\alpha_n + \beta_n}, \quad \alpha_0 > \beta_0 > 0, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (10)$$

generate the sequences  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{\beta_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ . It is easy to show  $\beta_n < \beta_{n+1} < \alpha_{n+1} < \alpha_n$ . Let  $N = N(\alpha_0, \beta_0)$  be the common limit of  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{\beta_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ . Let us call (10) the *AHM algorithm*. Noting that

$$\alpha_{n+1} - \beta_{n+1} = \frac{(\alpha_n - \beta_n)^2}{4\alpha_{n+1}} < \frac{1}{4\beta_0}(\alpha_n - \beta_n)^2,$$

we see that the convergence rate is quadratic. From definition (10)  $\alpha_{n+1}\beta_{n+1} = \alpha_n\beta_n$  for any  $n$ . The common limit is then expressed as  $N = \sqrt{\alpha_0\beta_0}$  which is just the geometric mean of the initial value  $\alpha_0, \beta_0$ . The mapping  $\alpha = N \coth(\sigma), \beta = N \tanh(\sigma)$  gives a bijection from  $\{(\alpha, \beta) | \alpha > \beta > 0\}$  to  $\{(N, \sigma) | N > 0, \sigma > 0\}$ .

There is an additional formula for the hyperbolic functions  $\coth$  and  $\tanh$ ,

$$\coth(2\sigma) = \frac{\coth(\sigma) + \tanh(\sigma)}{2}, \quad \tanh(2\sigma) = \frac{2 \coth(\sigma) \tanh(\sigma)}{\coth(\sigma) + \tanh(\sigma)}. \quad (11)$$

The  $n$ -term of the AHM algorithm is then

$$\alpha_n = N \coth(2^n \sigma), \quad \beta_n = N \tanh(2^n \sigma), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (12)$$

where the parameters  $N$  and  $\sigma$  are determined uniquely from the given initial values  $\alpha_0, \beta_0$  as follows:

$$N = \sqrt{\alpha_0\beta_0}, \quad \sigma = \tanh^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{\beta_0}{\alpha_0}}.$$

We conclude that

**Theorem 3.** *The AHM algorithm with  $\alpha_0 > \beta_0 > 0$  is a discrete-time integrable system having the hyperbolic function solution (12) and the conserved quantity  $\sqrt{\alpha_n\beta_n}$ .*

Next we proceed to find continuous-time integrable systems behind the AHM algorithm. One answer is an integrable Hamiltonian system derived in the same manner as that of Deift–Tomei–Li–Previato (cf. [9]). Let us change the discrete variable  $n$  in (12) into the continuous variable  $t$  as follows:

$$\alpha(t) \equiv N \coth(2^t \sigma), \quad \beta(t) \equiv N \tanh(2^t \sigma), \quad t \geq 0. \quad (13)$$

The functions  $\alpha(t)$  and  $\beta(t)$  satisfy the differential equations

$$\frac{d\alpha(t)}{dt} = \log 2 \times 2^t \sigma \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\beta}} (\beta - \alpha), \quad \frac{d\beta(t)}{dt} = \log 2 \times 2^t \sigma \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha}} (\alpha - \beta).$$

We consider the Poisson bracket defined by the symplectic 2-form

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\log 2 \times 2^{t+1} \sigma (\alpha - \beta)} d\alpha \wedge d\beta.$$

Then the differential equations take the following nonautonomous Hamiltonian form:

$$\frac{d\alpha(t)}{dt} = \log 2 \times 2^{t+1} \sigma (\beta - \alpha) \frac{\partial H}{\partial \beta}, \quad \frac{d\beta(t)}{dt} = -\log 2 \times 2^{t+1} \sigma (\beta - \alpha) \frac{\partial H}{\partial \alpha} \quad (14)$$

with respect to the Hamiltonian  $H(\alpha, \beta) \equiv \sqrt{\alpha\beta}$ , where  $\beta(t) - \alpha(t)$  is not zero for any  $t \geq 0$ . Conversely, the sequences  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{\beta_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  lie on the continuous flow of (14).

**Proposition 4** (Deift–Tomei–Li–Previato).  *$(\alpha(t), \beta(t))$  is an integrable Hamiltonian flow equipped with the symplectic structure. The Hamiltonian is just  $H(\alpha, \beta) = \sqrt{\alpha\beta}$ .*

The other answer is a continuous limit of the AHM algorithm (10). We rewrite the additional formula (11) of  $\coth$  in a matrix form found in [4],

$$\begin{aligned}\coth(2\sigma) &= \frac{\coth^2(\sigma) + 1}{2\coth(\sigma)} \\ &= - \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \coth(\sigma) & \coth(\sigma - \mu) \\ \coth(\sigma + \mu) & \coth(\sigma) \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} \coth(\sigma) & \coth(\sigma - \mu) & 1 \\ \coth(\sigma + \mu) & \coth(\sigma) & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}} \\ &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \coth(\sigma - \mu) & \coth(\sigma) - \coth(\sigma - \mu) \\ \coth(\sigma) - \coth(\sigma - \mu) & \coth(\sigma + \mu) - 2\coth(\sigma) + \coth(\sigma - \mu) \end{vmatrix}}{\coth(\sigma + \mu) - 2\coth(\sigma) + \coth(\sigma - \mu)},\end{aligned}\quad (15)$$

where  $\mu$  is an arbitrary real number. Multiplying to both the numerator and the denominator by  $1/\mu^2$  and taking a limit  $\mu \rightarrow 0$ , we derive a new additional formula

$$\coth(2\sigma) = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \coth(\sigma) & \frac{d\coth(\sigma)}{d\sigma} \\ \frac{d\coth(\sigma)}{d\sigma} & \frac{d^2\coth(\sigma)}{d\sigma^2} \end{vmatrix}}{\frac{d^2\coth(\sigma)}{d\sigma^2}} \quad (16)$$

which includes derivatives. It is shown that

**Theorem 5.** *A continuous limit of the AHM algorithm (10) is the delay-differential equation*

$$u(2t)\frac{d^2u(t)}{dt^2} = u(t)\frac{d^2u(t)}{dt^2} - \left(\frac{du(t)}{dt}\right)^2 \quad (17)$$

which has explicit solutions  $\coth(t)$  and  $\cot(t)$ .

The dynamical system (17) is rather different from (14). Note the positivity of  $u(t) = \coth(t)$  for  $t \geq 0$ . The AHM algorithm (10) is, conversely, a time discretization of (17) which keeps the positivity. Hence we say (10) as an *integrable discretization* of (17). Here the terminology, integrable discretization, is defined recently in [20]. The other solution  $\cot(t)$  is associated with an indefinite initial value  $\alpha_0 > 0$  and  $\beta_0 < 0$  and violates the positivity, which will be discussed in the next section.

Finally, in this section we remark on the matrix additional formula (15). Let us fix  $\mu$  in (15) as  $\mu = \sigma/l$  for some natural number  $l$ . Set  $\alpha_l \equiv \coth(\sigma)$  and  $\alpha_{l\pm 1} \equiv \coth(\sigma \pm \mu)$ , and consequently,  $\alpha_{2l} \equiv \coth(2\sigma)$ . Let us introduce the mapping

$$\alpha_n = f(\alpha_{n-1}).$$

Then the additional formula for  $\coth$  is expressed as

$$\alpha_{2l} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \alpha_{l-1} & f(\alpha_{l-1}) \\ f(\alpha_{l-1}) & f(f(\alpha_{l-1})) \end{vmatrix}}{f(f(\alpha_{l-1})) - 2f(\alpha_{l-1}) + \alpha_{l-1}}. \quad (18)$$

Eq. (18) is known as the recurrence formula of the Steffensen iteration for finding one real solution of the nonlinear equation  $x - f(x) = 0$  (cf. [22, p. 241]). The existence of an additional formula representation reflects the quadratic convergence of the Steffensen iteration.

#### 4. The AHM algorithm: indefinite case

In this section, we restrict ourselves to the AHM algorithm

$$\alpha_{n+1} = \frac{\alpha_n + \beta_n}{2}, \quad \beta_{n+1} = \frac{2\alpha_n\beta_n}{\alpha_n + \beta_n}, \quad \alpha_0 > 0, \beta_0 < 0, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (19)$$

of an indefinite initial value case. An additional formula

$$\cot(2\sigma) = \frac{\cot(\sigma) + (-\tan(\sigma))}{2}, \quad -\tan(2\sigma) = \frac{2\cot(\sigma)(-\tan(\sigma))}{\cot(\sigma) + (-\tan(\sigma))} \quad (20)$$

of the trigonometric functions plays an important role here. There is a bijection from the set  $\{(\alpha, \beta) | \alpha > 0, \beta < 0\}$  to  $\{(N, \sigma) | N > 0, 0 < \sigma < \pi/2\}$  defined by

$$N = \sqrt{-\alpha_0\beta_0}, \quad \sigma = \tan^{-1} \sqrt{-\frac{\beta_0}{\alpha_0}}.$$

Here  $N$  is the geometric mean of  $\alpha_0$  and  $-\beta_0$ . The  $n$ th term of the recurrence formula is given by

$$\alpha_n = N \cot(2^n \sigma), \quad \beta_n = -N \tan(2^n \sigma), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (21)$$

The AHM algorithm (19) is a discrete-time solvable dynamical system which has an explicit solution (21) and the conserved quantity  $N = \sqrt{-\alpha_n\beta_n}$ . However,  $\alpha_n$  and  $\beta_n$  do not converge as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in general. This is a sharp contrast with the positive case where  $\alpha_0 > \beta_0 > 0$ . Fig. 1 indicates the behaviour of solution  $\alpha_n$  with  $\alpha_0 = 0.5$ ,  $\beta_0 = -2$ .

Next, we consider a chaotic behaviour which appears in Fig. 1. Eliminating  $\beta_n$  by using the conserved quantity  $N = \sqrt{-\alpha_n\beta_n}$  we derive from (19)

$$\alpha_{n+1} = g(\alpha_n) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left( \alpha_n - \frac{N^2}{\alpha_n} \right). \quad (22)$$

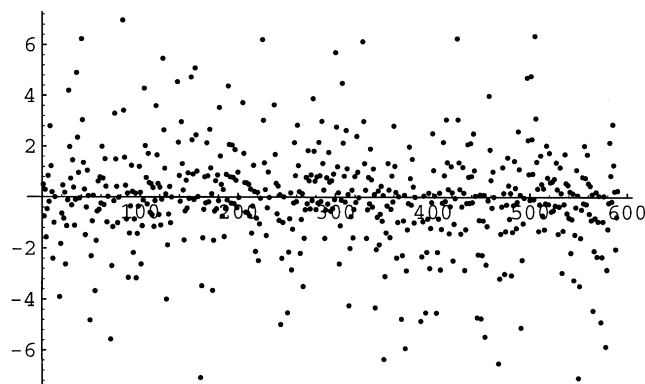


Fig. 1. The AHM algorithm with  $\alpha_0 = 0.5$ ,  $\beta_0 = -2$ .



Let us rewrite (22) by the change of variables

$$\alpha_n = -N \cot(\pi\omega_n) \quad (0 < \omega_n < 1)$$

to  $\cot(\pi\omega_{n+1}) = \cot(2\pi\omega_n)$ . It follows that  $\omega_n$  satisfies

$$\omega_{n+1} = \begin{cases} 2\omega_n & 0 < \omega_n \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ 2\omega_n - 1 & \frac{1}{2} < \omega_n < 1. \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

Eq. (23) is the dynamical system of the Bernoulli shift (cf. [11]). The solvability enables us to find an invariant measure and the exact Lyapunov exponent for (19). It is to be noted that the resulting invariant measure

$$\rho(x) = \frac{N}{\pi(N^2 + x^2)} \quad (-\infty < x < \infty)$$

is congruent with the density function of a Cauchy distribution. This fact explains the distribution of points  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  in Fig. 1. The AHM algorithm of indefinite case is shown to be a generator of the random variables which obey the Cauchy distribution having the parameter  $N$ . The Lyapunov exponent  $\lambda$  is given by  $\lambda = \log 2 > 0$ . We have

**Theorem 6.** *The AHM algorithm of indefinite case (19) is a solvable chaotic system which is conjugate to the Bernoulli shift (23).*

Recently, Umeno [29] found a class of solvable chaotic systems associated with Lévi's stable distributions including the Cauchy distribution.

## 5. The AHM algorithm on the space of positive-definite matrices

First in this section we give a differential-geometric interpretation of the AHM algorithm. Let  $\text{PD}(m)$  be a set of  $m \times m$  real positive-definite symmetric matrices. Such matrices appear in the stability theorem for linear dynamical systems, covariance matrices of stochastic systems, convex optimization problems and so on. Let  $\theta = (\theta^i)$  be a coordinates system of  $\text{PD}(m)$  such that  $\text{PD}(m) \ni P = \theta^i E_i$ , where  $E_i$  are matrix elements. Then  $\text{PD}(m)$  is known as a Riemannian manifold having the Riemannian metric  $g_{ij}(\theta) = \text{tr}(P^{-1} E_i P^{-1} E_j)$  (see [21]). There are three type of geodesics due to an information (or, dualistic) geometry structure of  $\text{PD}(m)$ .

The first is  $\nabla$ -geodesics. Let  $P$  be a point of  $\text{PD}(m)$  and  $X$  be an element of the tangent space  $T_P \text{PD}(m)$ . The  $\nabla$ -connection is determined by the parallel translation  $\Pi_C : X \equiv X_{P(t_1)} \mapsto X_{P(t_2)} = X$ . The corresponding geodesics equation is simply  $d^2 P(t)/dt^2 = 0$ . The geodesics from the point  $P(0) = P_1$  to the target  $P(1) = P_2$  is  $P(t) = P_1 + (P_2 - P_1)t$ . We are interested in its midpoint

$$A \equiv P(\tfrac{1}{2}) = \tfrac{1}{2}(P_1 + P_2). \quad (24)$$

The point  $A$  is just the arithmetic mean of matrices  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .

The second is  $\nabla^*$ -geodesics. The  $\nabla^*$ -connection corresponds to the parallel translation  $\Pi_C^* : X \equiv X_{P(t_1)} \mapsto X_{P(t_2)} = P(t_2)P(t_1)^{-1}XP(t_1)^{-1}P(t_2)$ . The dualistic coordinate of  $P$  is given by its inverse  $P^{-1}$ . Then the geodesics equation  $d^2 P^{-1}(t)/dt^2 = 0$  leads to the geodesics  $P(t) = (P_1^{-1} + (P_2^{-1} - P_1^{-1})t)^{-1}$

from  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ . The midpoint  $H$  is

$$H \equiv P(\frac{1}{2}) = 2(P_1^{-1} + P_2^{-1})^{-1}, \quad (25)$$

which expresses the harmonic mean of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .

The usual geodesics which comes from the Riemannian connection is

$$P(t) = P_1^{1/2}(\exp(\log(P_1^{-1/2}P_2P_1^{-1/2})t))P_1^{1/2}.$$

The midpoint  $G$  of the Riemannian geodesics

$$G \equiv P(\frac{1}{2}) = P_1^{1/2}(P_1^{-1/2}P_2P_1^{-1/2})^{1/2}P_1^{1/2} \quad (26)$$

is related to a geometric mean of the positive-definite matrices  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .

We now design an extension of the AHM algorithm for the positive-definite symmetric matrices  $Q_0$  and  $R_0$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{2}(Q_n + R_n), \\ R_{n+1} &= 2(Q_n^{-1} + R_n^{-1})^{-1}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

Then the sequences of matrices  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  are generated by (27). We give two lemmas here.

**Lemma 7.** *If  $Q_0 = I$ , then  $Q_n R_n = R_n Q_n$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .*

**Proof.** Obviously,  $Q_0 R_0 = R_0 Q_0$ . Let us assume that  $Q_k R_k = R_k Q_k$  for some integer  $k$ . Noting  $Q_k^{-1} R_k = R_k Q_k^{-1}$  and  $R_k^{-1} Q_k = Q_k R_k^{-1}$  we derive  $(Q_k^{-1} + R_k^{-1})(Q_k + R_k) = (Q_k + R_k)(Q_k^{-1} + R_k^{-1})$ . It follows that  $Q_{k+1} R_{k+1} = R_{k+1} Q_{k+1}$ . Lemma 7 is proved by induction.  $\square$

**Lemma 8.** *If  $Q_0 = I$ , then  $Q_{n+1} R_{n+1}^2 Q_{n+1} = Q_n R_n^2 Q_n$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . Thus,*

$$N \equiv Q_n R_n^2 Q_n \quad (28)$$

*is a conserved quantity of the recurrence formula (27).*

**Proof.** We have

$$\begin{aligned} (Q_n^{-1} + R_n^{-1})^2 &= R_n Q_n^{-1} R_n^{-2} Q_n^{-1} R_n + R_n Q_n^{-1} R_n^{-2} + R_n^{-2} Q_n^{-1} R_n + R_n^{-2} \\ &= (Q_n + R_n) Q_n^{-1} R_n^{-2} Q_n^{-1} (Q_n + R_n) \end{aligned}$$

with the help of Lemma 7. Taking the inverse we prove

$$\begin{aligned} Q_n R_n^2 Q_n &= (Q_n + R_n)(Q_n^{-1} + R_n^{-1})^{-2}(Q_n + R_n) \\ &= Q_{n+1} R_{n+1}^2 Q_{n+1}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

We have the main theorem.

**Theorem 9.** *The sequences  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  with  $Q_0 = I$  tend to the common limit  $G = R_0^{1/2}$  in a quadratic order.*

**Proof.** We first remark the convexity of  $PD(m)$ , namely, both  $Q + R$  and  $(Q^{-1} + R^{-1})^{-1}$  are positive-definite for positive-definite matrices  $Q$  and  $R$ . Socondly, it can be checked that

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{n+1} - R_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{2}Q_n(Q_n^{-1} + R_n^{-1} - 4(Q_n + R_n)^{-1})R_n \\ &= \frac{1}{2}Q_n(R_n^{-1}(Q_n - R_n) - Q_n^{-1}(Q_n - R_n))(Q_n + R_n)^{-1}R_n \\ &= \frac{1}{2}Q_nR_n^{-1}(Q_n - R_n)Q_n^{-1}(Q_n - R_n)(Q_n + R_n)^{-1}R_n \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(Q_n - R_n)^2(Q_n + R_n)^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

$$Q_{n+1} - Q_n = \frac{1}{2}(R_n - Q_n),$$

$$R_{n+1} - R_n = (Q_n - R_n)(Q_n + R_n)^{-1}R_n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

by using Lemma 7. Hence, the sequences  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  quadratically converge to a common limit, say,  $S$ .

The existence of conserved quantity (Lemma 8) helps us to compute  $S$  explicitly. It follows from  $Q_0 = I$  and (28) that  $N = R_0^2$ . While, we see that  $N = S^4$  by taking the limit  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in (28). Hence, the sequences  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  tend to  $S = R_0^{1/2}$ , the positive-definite square root  $R_0$ .  $\square$

It is shown that the *matrix AHM algorithm* (27) with  $Q_0 = I$  provides a method for computing the square root  $R_0^{1/2}$  of a given positive-definite symmetric matrix  $R_0$ . Algorithm (27) with a special choice of the initial data  $Q_0$  is essentially equivalent to the algorithm introduced by Denman and Beavers Jr. [10]. This algorithm is better than Heron's method

$$A_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2}(A_n + R_0A_n^{-1}), \quad A_0 = I, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (29)$$

for computing  $R_0^{1/2}$  in the sense in which the condition numbers of the matrices  $Q_n, R_n$  in (27) improve with every iteration. We give a numerical example. Consider the Hilbert matrix

$$H^{(m)} = (h_{ij}), \quad h_{ij} = \frac{1}{i+j-1}, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, m$$

which is a typical example of ill-conditioned positive-definite symmetric matrix (cf. [16]). Let us set  $R_0 = H^{(4)}$ . Applying the matrix AHM algorithm (27) with  $Q_0 = I$  we see that  $Q_n$  “converges” to

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.9114603871 & 0.33903123 & 0.1927197149 & 0.1309843472 \\ 0.33903123 & 0.3528552107 & 0.2474522474 & 0.1806979358 \\ 0.1927197149 & 0.2474522474 & 0.2411020518 & 0.2085576596 \\ 0.1309843472 & 0.1806979358 & 0.2085576596 & 0.2226032396 \end{pmatrix} \approx R_0^{1/2}$$

for  $n=10, 11, \dots$ . Here we use REDUCE 3.6. On the other hand,  $A_{10}$  and  $A_{14}$ , for example, generated by Heron's method (29) are

$$A_{10} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9114603876 & 0.339031225 & 0.1927197269 & 0.1309843394 \\ 0.3390312219 & 0.3528553023 & 0.2474520267 & 0.1806980792 \\ 0.192719734 & 0.247452032 & 0.2411025704 & 0.2085573224 \\ 0.1309843347 & 0.1806980775 & 0.2085573183 & 0.2226034615 \end{pmatrix},$$

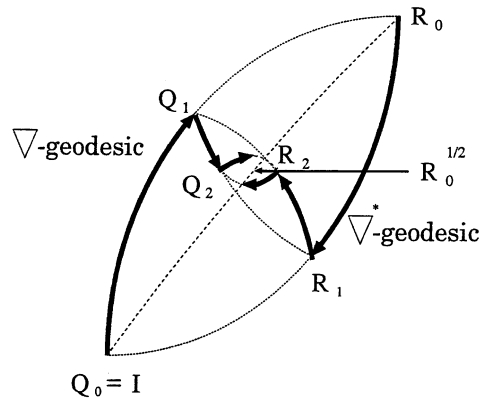


Fig. 2. The matrix AHM algorithm.

$$A_{14} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9076043572 & 0.3824495113 & 0.08818531537 & 0.1989496125 \\ 0.3368326342 & 0.3776110487 & 0.1878497806 & 0.2194497484 \\ 0.191151168 & 0.2651138346 & 0.1985797924 & 0.2362044118 \\ 0.1297575909 & 0.1945110162 & 0.1753011135 & 0.244225691 \end{pmatrix},$$

respectively. Roundoff error causes instability.

Finally, in this section we consider the recurrence formula (27) for *arbitrary* positive-definite symmetric matrices  $Q_0$  and  $R_0$ . Introduce  $Q'_0$  and  $R'_0$  by

$$Q'_n \equiv Q_0^{-1/2} Q_n Q_0^{-1/2}, \quad R'_n \equiv Q_0^{-1/2} R_n Q_0^{-1/2}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (30)$$

Obviously,  $Q'_0 = I$ . Theorem 9 implied that  $\{Q'_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R'_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  defined by (27) converge to  $R_0^{1/2}$  quadratically. Hence, we see that  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  tend to

$$Q_0^{1/2} R_0^{1/2} Q_0^{1/2} = Q_0^{1/2} (Q_0^{-1/2} R_0 Q_0^{-1/2})^{1/2} Q_0^{1/2}.$$

The right-hand side is just the midpoint of the Riemannian geodesics from  $Q_0$  to  $R_0$ . Moreover, the identity

$$Q_0^{1/2} (Q_0^{-1/2} R_0 Q_0^{-1/2})^{1/2} Q_0^{1/2} = R_0^{1/2} (R_0^{-1/2} Q_0 R_0^{-1/2})^{1/2} R_0^{1/2}$$

can be checked. This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Theorem 10.** *The AHM algorithm on the space  $PD(m)$  of positive-definite symmetric matrices generates sequences  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  which converge quadratically to the midpoint*

$$G = Q_0^{1/2} (Q_0^{-1/2} R_0 Q_0^{-1/2})^{1/2} Q_0^{1/2} \quad (31)$$

*of the Riemannian geodesics from  $Q_0$  to  $R_0$ .*

In other words, it can be said that the matrix AHM algorithm (27) on  $PD(m)$  approaches to  $G$  along  $\nabla$ -geodesics and  $\nabla^*$ -geodesics alternately. Some efficient algorithms having a mathematical structure similar to (27) are known. They are the affine scaling algorithm (cf. [12]) for linear

programming problems and the EM algorithm (cf. [3]) for the maximal likelihood estimation. See also a book [2] for information geometry and Refs. [17,18] for integrable systems on information spaces. In Fig. 2, the convergence to  $G=R_0^{1/2}$  of  $\{Q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{R_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  defined by the matrix arithmetic–harmonic mean algorithm with  $Q_0 = I$  is illustrated.

In operator theory such a common limit as (31) is known as the AHM of positive operators [14,15]. We here give a linear algebraic proof of quadratic convergence of algorithm (27) as well as the existence of the common limit (31).

## 6. Conclusions

Gauss' AGM algorithm (1) is an additional formula for the elliptic theta-functions. In Section 3 we note that the AHM algorithm (10) is analogously an additional formula for the hyperbolic functions. Both the two algorithms can be regarded as discrete-time integrable systems having conserved quantities. The existence of additional formulae conversely guarantees a quadratic convergence of these algorithms. The positivity of each term of the AGM algorithm enable us to take the max-plus limit (5) of the algorithm in Section 2. A matrix extension of the AHM algorithm (27) on the manifold of positive-definite symmetric matrices is presented in Section 5. Sequences of positive-definite matrices converge to the common limit (31) quadratically. On the other hand, the AHM algorithm of indefinite case (19) is shown to be a chaotic system in Section 4. The algorithm remarkably generates numbers which obey the Cauchy distribution. The positivity seems most crucial in algorithms associated with arithmetic, geometric and harmonic means.

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